

SCHOOL LIFE

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In this issue

Challenges to gifted children

GERTRUDE M. LEWIS

The counselor and articulation

DOLPH CAMP

NOVEMBER 1960



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The World's Eye

The office of the scholar is to cheer, to raise, and to guide men by showing them facts amidst appearances. He plies the slow, unhonored, and unpaid task of observation. Flamsteed and Herschel, in their glazed observatories, may catalogue the stars with the praise of all men, and the results being splendid and useful, honor is sure. But he, in his private observatory, cataloguing obscure and nebulous stars of the human mind, which as yet no man has thought of as such—watching days and months sometimes for a few facts; correcting still his old records; must relinquish display and immediate fame. . . . He is the world's eye. He is the world's heart. . . . Whatsoever oracles the human heart, in all emergencies, in all solemn hours, has uttered as its commentary on the world of actions—these he shall receive and impart. And whatsoever new verdict Reason from her inviolable seat pronounces on the passing men and events of today—this he shall hear and promulgate.

RALPH WALDO EMERSON

Essay on the American Scholar

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE • ARTHUR S. FLEMMING, *Secretary*

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THEODORA E. CARLSON
Editor

ADA JANE KELLY
Associate Editor

CATHERINE P. WILLIAMS
Assistant Editor

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Brief EDUCATION AND GOVERNMENT Reports

Libraries in the news

The Library Services Act—"to promote the further development of public library services in rural areas"—has been extended until June 30, 1966. For the first time since the act was originally passed, in 1956, Congress has appropriated the full amount the act authorizes for any one fiscal year—\$7.5 million, to be allocated to the States in 1960-61.

In the 4 years the act has been in effect, librarians and administrators have had many opportunities to note the need for standards for State library agencies. As a result, the library profession, to provide a basis for the formulation of new standards, soon will launch an 18-month comprehensive survey of State library functions. The study, which will be made by the American Library Association with the aid of \$45,000 from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, will begin next January.

This year's presidential campaign was a historic one for libraries: for the first time in history both major political parties included support for libraries in their platforms.

New HEW periodical

As a companion to its annual *Trends*, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare is now issuing a monthly publication, *Indicators*. Both publications give statistical information on social trends and developments in the United States—on

health, education, social security, welfare, population, and vital statistics. *Indicators* will give current information and show month-to-month changes. *Trends* is a yearly report.

A year's subscription to *Indicators* is \$3.50; single copies are 35 cents. *Trends* (1960 edition) sells for 50 cents. Single copies of both and subscriptions to *Indicators* may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

Guidance for the deaf

Gallaudet College, the only college in the world for the deaf, has established a counseling center, the first of its kind in this country. The center will provide personal, vocational, and educational guidance for the college's students and for deaf people in the surrounding community. A grant of \$50,000 from the U.S. Office of Vocational Rehabilitation will finance the center's first year of operation; and decreasing amounts will assist it each year for another 4 years. At the end of that time, Gallaudet will finance the center entirely with other support.

The college has appointed a professional full-time staff of four—a director, a clinical psychologist, and two general counselors. In addition, it will have the part-time services of a psychiatrist and a psychometrist. The staff is now being trained in communicating with, understanding,

and serving the deaf. They are learning the language of signs and the manual alphabet and in general are thoroughly orienting themselves toward the deaf.

The center will have a library of tests, measurements, counseling aids, occupational information, study aids, and other materials helpful in counseling.

Still another grant from the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation—\$16,500—will permit Gallaudet to continue for a second year its research project for developing a pictorial test that will identify the vocational interests of deaf people.

The pictorial test was given twice last year to about 2,000 deaf males who were either students or clients of State vocational rehabilitation agencies. Of the students, about 1,000, all at least 16 years old, were in more than 20 residential and day schools for the deaf; 150 were at Gallaudet. This year the test will be given to about 1,000 deaf male workers in 15 different occupations to determine if the test really does identify the vocational interests of the deaf. The study should be complete by 1961 for use by psychologists and vocational counselors working with the deaf.

Research is under the direction of Stephen P. Quigley, director of the Office of Psycho-Educational Research at Gallaudet. Harold Geist, a clinical psychologist, serves as principal investigator for the project.

Job guide

The 1960-61 edition of *Job Guide for Young Workers*, prepared by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Department of Labor, is now off the press. It should be highly helpful to young people planning to go to work after graduating from high school and should be of particular service to the school counselor. Not only does it advise the young job seeker and review the labor outlook, but it describes the requirements of a wide variety of semiprofessional, technical, administrative, sales, clerical, and service occupations. It stresses the need of the young worker to consider the short-term and long-range advantages of different occupations.

Job Guide for Young Workers sells for 45 cents a copy from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

NATO and OEEC fellowships

The National Science Foundation is now accepting applications and nominations for two overseas fellowship programs: The North Atlantic Treaty Organization Fellowships in Science, and the Organization for European Economic Cooperation Senior Visiting Fellowships for 1961. Under the first program there will be about 50 awards to scientists with doctoral degrees; under the second, about 25 awards to teachers of science. The programs are open only to citizens of the United States.

NATO fellowships are in mathematics, physics, engineering, medicine, biology, anthropology, psychology, and social sciences, as well as in certain interdisciplinary fields. Though fellows need not study in a NATO country, applicants are encouraged to apply for study in one. Fellows will receive \$4,500 for a full year, \$3,375 for an academic year, plus allowances for travel and dependents.

OEEC Senior Visiting Fellowships enable senior staff scientists, mathe-

micians, and engineers to study new techniques and developments at advanced research and educational institutions, primarily in OEEC countries. Fellowships will be for 8 weeks to 6 months and will include most fields of science and technology. Nominations must be made by the institution. A fellow will receive \$10 a day for subsistence plus a travel allowance and will be permitted to receive his regular salary from his institution. Nomination deadline is Jan. 6, 1961. Awards will be announced on Apr. 17.

Applications and nomination forms and information may be obtained from the Fellowship Office, National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council, 2101 Constitution Avenue NW., Washington 25, D.C.

Recreation publications

The importance of play and recreation is being reemphasized in two new publications by the Children's Bureau of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Home Play and Play Equipment for Young Children offers parents of young children guidance in providing toys and simple materials for both indoor and outdoor play. It stresses the wisdom of both all-family activities and activities requiring the child to play alone or with other children. The booklet, a revision of an earlier one, was prepared by Adele Franklin, director of the All-Day Neighborhood Schools in New York City. It can be bought for 15 cents a copy from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

In cooperation with the National Recreation Association, the Children's Bureau also has revised its popular publication, *Handbook for Recreation*. The original edition, issued in 1937, was written primarily for professional recreation leaders, but the 1960 version also includes material for parents and amateur leaders.

Purpose of the book is to help leaders devise programs for teaching children to use their leisure time wisely. It includes instruction for playing active and quiet games; word, music, and drama games; and games requiring special equipment. It is sold by the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., for 75 cents a copy.

Last of the series

The Army's Saturday series of radio discussions about young people, "Topic of Conversation," will continue through December 10. The schedule for the last four programs, to be heard over Mutual Broadcasting Company stations at 12:35 p.m., EST, is as follows:

November 19, *American youth and religion*, by Chief of Army Chaplains F. A. Tobey; Rt. Rev. James A. Pike, Protestant Episcopal Bishop of California; Msgr. Joseph Schieder, Catholic Youth Activities Facilities; and a representative of Judaism.

November 26, *Youth in the arts—drama*, by Sidney Blackmer, distinguished actor; Jay Carmody, drama critic, Washington *Evening Star*; Poe Laggette, Depew Professor of Speech, George Washington University; and Harold Arberg, chief, music section, Department of the Army.

December 3, *Youth in the arts—music and dance*, by Mark Schubart, dean, Juilliard School of Music; Raymond LeMieux, assistant director for music, New York City Public Schools; Todd Bolender, choreographer, New York City Ballet; and Dr. Arberg.

December 10, *Youth in the arts—art and literature*, by Bennett Cerf, publisher, Random House; Eugenia Nowlin, chief, arts and crafts section, Department of the Army; Victor D'Amico, director, Peoples Art Center, Museum of Modern Art; and Ruth Whitney, associate editor, *Seventeen*.

Are gifted children challenged in our schools?

Because there is much interest in the education of able children, Dr. Lewis has collected information on their characteristics and on processes some schools known to be good are using in educating them. She spent 3 days in each of a number of schools, observing classes, interviewing teachers, administrators, and children, and examining resources for teaching and learning. She reports here some of the things teachers said about able children, some examples of the lessons recorded, and some elements she found to be common in all the classes she observed.

TALKING about the capable children in their classes is a favorite pastime of teachers. When teachers are asked what characteristics they observe in the "bright" children they teach, especially the academically able, their answers are surprisingly similar, as this brief summary indicates:

These children are interested in everything, they want to discover, seek proof, have depth, travel fast; are persistent in their desire to understand; are self-directing and responsible; and generally achieve easily. "It is hard to keep up with them," one teacher said. "Sometimes I have to apply the brakes in order to pull the loose ends together and catch my breath." They want to work, and want work separated from play. They do many things well, like to study hard things, interrelate subject-matter readily, are more verbal, want more books, have more initiative. Many like to make outlines and can use them well; many enjoy writ-

ing, and some produce stories that demonstrate creative ability. Many form their own groups to work on problems, choosing the members carefully on the basis of ability.

But able children, teachers say, do not consistently show these traits. They are not all easy to teach. In fact, some are difficult to teach. Children with narrow or "all-consuming" interests are usually difficult to motivate in areas outside their interests, and sometimes even in the fundamentals of the very subjects of their interest. Some whose IQ's indicate high potentialities perform well only when others lead the way but seem to lack the imagination or initiative to become self-propelling. A very fine teacher, after working with a group of able children who had been separated from those showing initiative, said, "The class was a dead weight; there were no leaders in it—no one to inspire the children—to show the way. They were always waiting to be told what to do and how to do it."

Some children of high ability, teachers in several schools said, seem to lack the "drive" to achieve in any direction or under any circumstances. Interested in finding ways to motivate them, teachers look for the causes of low aspiration, but, like teachers everywhere, they find such causes as low energy, poor health, discouragement, uninspiring or troublesome home conditions, bad habits, and preoccupation with other affairs often difficult to detect and to overcome. As a result, potentially able children often sit idly by, doing only what they are required to do, willing

to be surpassed by children of lesser ability and higher drive. They are for their teachers a constant reminder of waste and loss, for it is the "under-achievers" or children with "motivational problems" whose gifts and talents may be lost to themselves and to society. The real challenge is not merely to identify, but to devise a program which will inspire these children and help them develop their talents.

In many classrooms where the teaching is excellent, it is sometimes difficult for the infrequent visitor to detect what the more able are doing that others are not. Where children are encouraged to use their ability to the utmost, differences show both in quantity and quality of achievement, but on a sliding scale from the slowest learners to the most



Dr. Lewis, Office specialist for upper grades, has taught in all grades in public and private elementary schools. She has done graduate teaching at Yale, Harvard, Johns Hopkins, and the University of Maine. At one time she was supervisor of elementary education in Winchester, Mass., and for 3 years was director of education of elementary school services for the New Hampshire State Department of Education.

able. For instance, all write compositions, but the range of accomplishment is great—in content, form, accuracy, and style. All take part in social studies and science projects, but some do vastly more work and more difficult work than others. All learn new words, but some rapidly increase their reading and speaking vocabularies. The difference is chiefly that the more able do more, delve more deeply, go beyond the call of duty to carry out their own plans.

In class after class there were abundant illustrations of "lead-on" possibilities—challenges to the able to go beyond the lesson—to probe for knowledge and develop new skills. In these, the teachers had apparently set no upper limits to study, investigation, and experiments; instead, they gave the impression that the activity, the study, the searching for knowledge or understanding—in short, the learning—could be stretched to meet the interests and capacities of the most capable child in the group. Many of the lessons are worth reporting, but only two of them are included here.

Grade 4. Before the class began, some boys had put these questions on a bulletin board:

BALLOONS AND PARACHUTES
WE WANT TO KNOW—

How was the first balloon made?
What makes a balloon rise?
What makes a balloon come down?
What is a parachute?
What are parachutes used for?
Why does a parachute used by a flier have to have such a large canopy?

The next period was language arts, and the teacher called for individual reports. After each report, the children evaluated it, following points which they had listed on a poster: Beginning sentence, topic choice, worthwhile facts, correct English,

visual aids, distinct speech, posture, preparation, use of notes, and closing sentence.



Linda reported on *The Hunting Wasp*. Using the drawings on an easel, she gave a talk on wasps that would have made many a skillful adult envious.

The gist of it follows:

- There are five kinds of hunting wasp:
1. Caterpillar Hunter (*Ammophila*)—the only user of tools except man.
 2. Subterranean Hunter (*Scolia*)—a giant, 3" long. Hunts grubs, especially Japanese beetles.
 3. Fly Hunter (*Bembex*)—puts her egg in a mud tube. Paralyzes one fly, puts it in a tube, and lays an egg, and closes the tube. Flies which are parasites might destroy the wasps that feed on them. [Irony!]
 4. Cement Maker (*Odynerus*)—using saliva or one drop of water, she moistens the clay, makes a beautiful bench circle shaped for her babies, then spoils it by plastering mud all over it. [Humorous!]
 5. Spider Hunter (*Pompilus*)—rather aggressive. Attacks the tarantula—inserts a sting behind its leg, again and again if necessary.

"Why do wasps not kill their prey?" Linda asked. "They want their own babies to live, and a jelly made from the live bodies is necessary for the babies. They don't often sting humans, because to a wasp mother these huge monsters don't seem like tasty morsels to feed her babies."

Each chapter of the story Linda told was a delight to listen to. When she finished, she explained that she had worked over and over to get good and original opening and closing sentences.

The following is a brief of the discussion:

CLASS: What is a segment?

LINDA: Well, you've seen a caterpillar, I hope [chuckle]. You know how it is jointed. One joint is a segment [draws on board].

CLASS: What are mandibles?

LINDA: Jaws.

CLASS: How long is a bembex?

LINDA: One inch long. Others are from one-half to an inch longer. It is the pygmie.

CLASS: Linda seemed to look at this side of the room and then over there.

LINDA: My father told me that the way to get attention is to direct an idea to one person and then shift to another person.

CLASS: My speech teacher says you should look people in the face.

CLASS: I thought Linda held our attention.

It was evident that in evaluating, children could find no terms to express Linda's excellence. When they came to vocabulary, the children laughed appreciatively. "It didn't sound as if it came out of a book, either," said one.

TEACHER: No, where she quoted, she said so—did you notice?

The children said they had, but wanted Linda to repeat that part so that they could hear it again.

When they considered her closing sentence, Linda said, "I changed it several times to get it more original."

Grade 5. The unit of study at the time was *Telling Time in the Past and Present*, and there were on the walls posters the children had made, showing different kinds of clocks, some models on tables, and a collection of clocks used today in Europe and America. The study covered many areas of the world, and children were dressed in costumes rep-

representative of various countries or periods in history.

One by one the children explained their projects, using either a diagram or a model: The sand clock, water clock, sundial, marked candle, rope, Nuremberg eggs, gnomon, fakir sticks, hourglass, milk clock, and modern clock.

Some of the children acted out a play they had written about the invention of the water clock. Using sticks to portray the ticking of clocks, they played an original melody.

In preparation for the next step, the teacher led the discussion to the calendar and to the children's questions, previously listed on a chart:

*Why are there 7 days in the week?
Who made the names of the month?
Why is there a leap year?
Why are days called days?
Why does a year have 12 months?
What kinds of calendars did the ancients have?
How was the calendar made?
How do you explain the language of the calendar: Year, month, day, decade, century?*

They said they could find these answers "and more, too," if they looked for the meaning of day, solar year, month; ways used by Babylonia, Greece, and Egypt to measure a year; different men who improved the calendar; other ways of measuring a year; and meaning of B.C. and A.D.

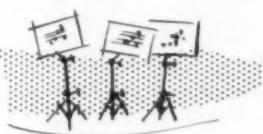
Five committees were formed to find information on these points. Some looked up the names, some filled in guide sheets made by the teacher, and some turned to encyclopedias and trade books. The teacher reminded them to "be sure to take important notes—in phrases, not sentences."

After looking at the film strip, *The History of Our Calendar*, a small group posed a new question, "Are Chinese weeks 5-day weeks?" And so a study grew to fit even the most

eager child's capacity for learning.

Similarly, in sixth grades, I found that children's opportunities to learn were rich and varied. One class was learning to type; another was taking advantage of a State and local election to study civic responsibilities; another was using a well-known television travel program as a focus for social studies. In most classes, social studies and current events were closely interrelated. Several were studying Communism and Democracy. One class had called on a university professor of political science to clarify some points for them, and another was using a current issue of a children's news periodical as source material. Still another class was tracing the development of certain aspects of our civilization.

Mathematics and science both wore the new look, with children probing to discover processes and meanings rather than memorizing processes and meanings discovered by others. Science classes were enthusiastically studying the solar system, conservation, and energy. For these subjects as for all others, reference and laboratory materials were abundant.



In language arts, several classes were studying literature. Among the books standing in their library corner were copies of *Curtain Call*, *David Copperfield*, *The Diary of Anne Frank*, *Kidnapped*, *Ride With the Sun*, *Sea Song*, *Sea Gypsy*, and *Sea Fever*, and among the magazines were *Harper's*, *Saturday Review*, *National Geographic*, and *Life*. A study of famous people called for biographies, among them Bach, Carver, Chopin, the Eisenhowers, Ford, Hemingway,

Kipling, Lincoln, Rockne, Schweitzer, and a score of others. Two of the elementary school libraries had between 8,000 and 10,000 books, including reference books, encyclopedias, supplementary books, and fiction.

Many children were composing poetry, stories, and plays, or writing accounts of imaginary experiences. Several teachers expressed the belief that the more able children characteristically like to write.

Opportunities in music, vocal and instrumental; art, plastic and graphic, in all its modern forms; and foreign language were available, as were rich resources for teaching and learning in all these fields.

These classes were not alike. They were organized differently—some on a selected basis and some on an unselected. They were in different school systems, covered three different grade levels, and included every subject of the curriculum. Yet they had certain elements in common that helped to explain why they were so successful.

The principals seemed professionally and personally equipped to encourage and guide an institution dedicated to childhood education. Knowing that the school could be organized in several ways, they were continuously measuring their current programs by the total growth of children. They were efficient in administering the school and at the same time able to give professional help to teachers, children, and parents. It may be significant that these able principals held the classroom pupil-teacher ratio to between 22 to 1 and 30 to 1.

The teachers worked in friendly, skillful, and encouraging ways, guiding children through their own interests, and establishing and maintaining standards of work and study habits. They treated children

honestly, inviting and respecting their questions and offerings. When children had used their own resources to find information they needed, teachers led them to new resources.

Teachers accepted the challenges brought by children and used them as "take-off" points for study. They put no straitjackets on subject matter or experience. Under their guidance, explorations never seemed to reach a dead end; instead each led on in a venturesome sort of way to more and more avenues of interest. On complex problems children worked together; and when the going got rough, the teacher helped bridge a hard spot.

Teachers showed full respect for the traditionally recognized academic fundamentals of reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic, and helped children acquire these fundamentals in practical situations. The records each child kept on his own achievement helped him maintain interest in developing his skills.

They also showed concern for the social fundamentals. Through many of their activities they tried to help children develop the attitudes, understanding, and social skills they needed to participate effectively and happily in life around them. They took time to enable children to clarify their thoughts and actions and encouraged them to develop a sense of value.

They seemed to understand how to help individual children cope with personal problems hindering their progress. The principal helped and so did parents, the teachers said; and in severe cases, psychologists and other specialists were called upon. In this way, one very able child had been helped to solve his acute reading problem, and another was making progress in overcoming a long built-in dislike for school.

Teachers seemed to know how to

guide each child toward his fullest performance in school work and to explore his interests beyond the classroom and the school. In every class, in almost every subject they set tasks adaptable to various levels of intelligence and achievement and provided source materials of various levels of difficulty.

Instructional resources were impressive. All of the schools had books the children needed for their studies, either in classrooms, school libraries, or materials centers. There were dictionaries, encyclopedias, and other reference books; fiction; magazines of many kinds—news, popular, and specialized; and abundant leisure-type reading materials.

Both the teachers and the pupils proudly showed their explanatory charts; portable flannel and chalk boards; maneuverable objects such as sticks, pebbles, dominoes; visual aid materials; musical instruments, puppet stages, and art materials; magnets, wires, and magnifying glasses; and many other materials useful in helping children learn.



Classroom furniture and arrangement were functional and inviting, facilitating children's activities. The traditional straight rows were conspicuously scarce. Children's art work made the rooms vibrant with color. Space and facilities were clearly planned to encourage children to work in all areas of curriculum. Several classrooms had adjoining workrooms.

Human energy was directed toward learning. Perhaps the most pervasive element in these classes was a certain atmosphere that stimulated both teacher and children to

release and organize their energies for their tasks. No one dissipated his energies by conforming to needless routines or extrinsic standards or by participating halfheartedly or wishing to escape. Apparently each person was doing his best, his interests were genuine, and all elements in the situation, both human and material, encouraged him.

In all these common elements there are some clues to good teaching and to creating situations that stimulate children to learn:

- ♦ Teachers who understand subject matter can focus attention on the individual.
- ♦ Children should be guided as individuals as much as the situation permits.
- ♦ Adults—parents and teachers—should try to be sensitive to children's reactions and to be open and encouraging rather than evasive, rigid, or demanding.
- ♦ Opportunities to learn should be broad and deep, capable of being stretched to meet the interests of every child in the group.
- ♦ Resources to facilitate individual learning should be made available without teachers having to spend undue time and energy to obtain them.
- ♦ The teacher should evaluate the growth and achievement of each child on the basis of what the child is capable of doing rather than on the basis of a class, school, or community standard, or even a national norm. In this way she would encourage each child to progress toward fulfillment as a well-balanced individual, capable of using his unique sources of strength.

Everywhere there was convincing proof that children learn best when they are challenged by their own interests to find out, to try out, to do, when means and materials are available to aid them, and when the

teacher understands, guides, and helps them. This is true of all children, the gifted and the talented as well as the average and the slow. The schools visited are making good use

of this principle, and as a result, they are succeeding in challenging the gifted as well as all others. These schools may not be run-of-the-mill, but schools doing things equally well

may very likely be found in every community. With vision, encouragement, and practical help from administrators and parents, such schools could become typical.

Research reports available on library loan

A Library of Congress project now makes it possible, as we said last month, for any interested person to borrow, through 1 of 58 cooperating libraries, the final reports of projects done under the cooperative research program of the Office of Education. The lending libraries (names and addresses were in last month's SL) do not yet have all the reports; the missing ones, among which are some of the first that were written, owe their absence only to a temporary shortage of copies. The list below includes nearly half of the 60-some reports now available; the rest will come next month.

ABRAHAM, WILLARD. Mental Retardation and "Pseudo-Mental Retardation" in Relation to Bilingual and Sub-Cultural Factors. Arizona State Univ., Sept. 12, 1960. No. 185 (7031).

AINSWORTH, STANLEY. Educational, Social, and Emotional Factors in the Education of Retarded Children in Georgia Public Schools. The Univ. of Georgia, June 2, 1960. No. 171 (6470).

ANDERSON, JOHN O. Perceptual and Response Abilities of Mentally Retarded Children. Southern Illinois Univ., May 12, 1960. No. 176 (6471).

ANNAS, PHILIP A. Development of a Program for Educable Mentally Retarded Children in Rural Schools. Maine State Dept. of Education, Jan. 15, 1960. No. 382 (7778).

BOWMAN, PAUL H. Educational Motivation Patterns of Superior Students Who Do and Who Do Not Achieve in High School. Univ. of Chicago, Apr. 19, 1960. No. 208 (7136).

CANTOR, GORDON N. Discrimination Learning Ability in Mongoloid and Normal Children of Comparable Mental Age. George Peabody College for Teachers, Apr. 17, 1959. No. 076 (6422).

CAPOBIANCO, R. J. Social Behavior of Mentally Retarded Children in Public School and Institution Environments; Syracuse Univ., June 26, 1958. No. 092 (6417).

CAPOBIANCO, R. J. Reasoning Methods and Reasoning Ability in Mentally Retarded Children. Syracuse Univ., July 9, 1958. No. 081 (6421).

CAPOBIANCO, R. J. Quantitative and Qualitative Analyses of Endogenous and Exogenous Children in Some Reading Processes. Syracuse Univ., Apr. 4, 1958. No. 019 (6418).

CARRIKER, WILLIAM R. A Comparison of Post School Adjustment of Regular and Special Class Retarded Individuals Served

in Lincoln and Omaha, Nebr., Public Schools. Nebraska State Dept. of Education, Aug. 14, 1957. No. 146 (6445).

DAVIS, FREDERICK B. The Identification and Classroom Behavior of Elementary-School Children Each of Whom is Gifted in at Least One of Five Different Characteristics. Hunter College, Oct. 19, 1959. No. 297 (7152).

DECHARMS, RICHARD, and THOMAS E. JORDAN. Achievement Motivation in Normal and Mentally Retarded High School Children. Washington Univ., Mar. 2, 1959. No. 390 (7670).

DRESSEL, PAUL L. Critical Thinking, Attitudes, and Values in Higher Education. Michigan State Univ., Jan. 15, 1960. No. 372 (7668).

DUBOIS, PHILIP H. Psychological Research on the Teaching of Mathematics. Washington Univ., Jan. 29, 1960. No. 642 (8181).

DUNN, LLOYD M. Effectiveness of Special Day-Class Training Programs for Severely (Trainable) Mentally Retarded Children. George Peabody College for Teachers, May 25, 1960. No. 103 (6425).

DURRELL, DONALD D. Adapting Instruction to the Learning Needs of Children in the Intermediate Grades. Boston Univ., May 5, 1960. No. 407 (7780).

ECKERT, RUTH E., and JOHN E. STECKLEIN, Factors Influencing Choice of College Teaching as a Career. Univ. of Minnesota, Mar. 28, 1958. No. 169 (6442).

ECKERT, RUTH E. Job Motivations, Activities, and Satisfactions of Present and Prospective Women College Faculty Members. Univ. of Minnesota, July 21, 1960. No. 557 (8201).

EDSON, WILLIAM H. Admissions Interview in Teacher Education for Predicting Success in Teaching. Univ. of Minnesota, Dec. 19, 1958. No. 173 (6438).

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COUNSELORS, PLEASE NOTE!

We editors have a hunch that the job of getting the right student and the right college together is as time-consuming as it is important, and that aids of the kind Dr. Camp describes in his article beginning on the next page would be welcomed. Tell us, are we right? Tell us on a postcard, or in a letter, addressed to School Life, Office of Education, Washington 25, D.C.

The counselor and high-school-college articulation

NO ONE believes that even the most effective program of high-school-college articulation will eliminate all drop-outs and send all able students to college, to enroll and major in the courses best suited to them. Many of us do believe, however, and with good reason, that such a program can reduce the number of dropouts and increase the number of able students who go to college and stay with it through graduation, majoring in subjects suited to their ability and interests.

If we are to have such a program, many persons must contribute to it—parents, school administrators and teachers, and college officials—but high school and college counselors must bear the major responsibility. Both have important jobs to do, but I am concerned here only with the high school counselor, particularly with that part of his work which affects high-school-college articulation—that part which requires him to identify the high school student capable of graduating from college, to work with others in motivating him, and to help him in every way possible to go directly from high school to college.

By means of these three major activities—identification, motivation, and assistance—the counselor can do much to smooth the way for bright boys and girls as they move through high school and on to college, to bridge the distance between the two levels so that students will have no serious interruption in their work and no unnecessary hardship. Each of these activities may differ from school to school and even from student to student, but at least to some extent all are necessary in every school.

They tend to concentrate in the student's senior year in high school and his freshman year in college, but many begin much earlier.

Identification

Since even the brightest student would have trouble entering college if he had not taken the courses required for admission, the counselor should begin identifying students in grades 7 and 8 and should maintain lists of all high school students whom he has identified as able to graduate from college.

Admittedly the counselor's job of identification is a difficult one, but many tools and techniques are available to him and many persons are willing to help him. For example, he can use standardized tests of scholastic aptitude and achievement, school marks, and observation. If he does not have enough opportunity to observe students he can get reports from their teachers, who do have ample opportunity. He will find that the single-score test of scholastic aptitude is still helpful in identifying students if he uses it with enough supporting data. And if he needs a more refined identification than the single-score test gives him he can use a scholastic aptitude test with two scores—language and nonlanguage or verbal and non-verbal—or a multiple aptitude test with several scores—verbal reasoning, numerical ability, mechanical analysis, science analysis, perceptual speed, clerical aptitude, and the like.

A counselor usually has no trouble in identifying the very bright student, and though he may have some trouble in identifying able students in the group between the very bright and the not-bright-enough-for-college, he can identify them if he works closely with other staff members and uses the techniques I have mentioned. His real difficulty is in motivating the 5 to 10 percent of the very bright and the 50 percent of the middle group who are not now going on to college.

Motivation

Perhaps no job in a school system is more important than encouraging bright boys and girls to continue their studies. Because it is important, it is a schoolwide responsibility. It is even more: it is a communitywide



Dr. Camp, head of the Office unit on testing in nonpublic secondary schools, has long been in guidance and counseling work in the public schools, both at the local level, as teacher, principal, supervisor, counselor, and director of services, and at the State level, as supervisor of guidance services.

responsibility. But because of the counselor's relation to students, teachers, and parents and because of his special training, he may be more successful than the others in motivating students. That, however, does not mean he should work alone. He may work with many persons and groups, but in the main he will work with students, their teachers, and their parents.

Many students have been inspired to go on to college simply by good teaching, others by their admiration for a dedicated teacher. But resourceful teachers also motivate students in more direct ways—by awakening their ambition, by stimulating their curiosity, and by teaching them to find pleasure in using their minds. Since the passage of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, a number of studies have been reported showing how teachers have motivated bright pupils.

The two I mention here are typical. Dual's study found that students who were given formal and periodic opportunities to evaluate themselves did better work than students not given such opportunities.¹ And Thistlethwaite's study found that social recognition has a motivating influence on some students.²

The counselor—he too, should be resourceful—can sometimes induce teachers to double their efforts to inspire able students. For instance, at faculty meetings or other meetings of small groups of teachers he might suggest ideas by reviewing studies such as the ones I have mentioned.

The counselor who works happily with teachers will find the association beneficial in many ways. For example, he and the teacher may confer about how to get an able boy to do better work. As a result both will come to understand the boy better: the counselor will know more about the boy's performance; the teacher, more about the boy's potential. With new insight the teacher and the counselor may be able to get the boy to work at his top capacity.

As naturally as he turns to the teacher for aid in motivating able students, the counselor turns to parents, particularly those whose schooling ended in the elementary grades. He may go to parents for a number of reasons: to create in them a favorable attitude toward their son's or daughter's going to college, to tell them that a scholarship is available or how to get a college loan at low interest rate. Usually it is enough for him to tell them that their

¹ Henry T. Dual, "Effect of Periodic Self-Evaluation on Student Achievement," *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, vol. 49, No. 4 (August 1958), pp. 197-199.

² Donald L. Thistlethwaite, "Effects of Social Recognition upon the Educational Motivation of Talented Youth," *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, vol. 50, No. 3 (June 1959), pp. 111-116.

child is exceptionally bright to get their full cooperation.

In all likelihood, as soon as the student learns of his parents' attitude, he begins to make plans to attend college.

And, of course, the counselor works directly with students. He has access to whatever plans each has made, their scores on standardized tests, and their school marks. Since he knows who is taking the college preparatory curriculum and who is not, he can easily make a list of all able students apparently not headed for college. He can see them one by one and point out to each the advantages of a college education.

The counselor's resourcefulness or lack of it determines what he does to encourage students to go on with their studies. Here are a few things he can do: He can supply them with material written to interest students in going to college, arrange for them to visit several college campuses, invite college representatives to visit the school and discuss with students, either individually or in groups, the advantages of a college education.

Assistance

The high school senior who has decided on college will want the answers to many questions—questions on the selection of a college and course of study, cost of attendance, social programs, student services, and student aids. The counselor can help him find the answers and work out his plans.

First, the counselor can help him select a suitable college. Even if the student's parents select the college, the counselor is obligated to discuss the matter with them, diplomatically of course, if he believes the student's chances of succeeding in it are poor.

In selecting a college, the student will be primarily interested in curriculum, standards, expense, aids, and student activities. A counselor who knows the student's aptitude and ability—facts he can get from the student's cumulative record—and the courses of study the college offers—facts he can get from the catalog—can determine the suitability of the curriculum for the student. It isn't enough, however, for the counselor to have the facts: he must see that the student understands them. Furthermore, he should encourage the student to check the curriculums of several colleges so that he may choose the one best suited to him.

The student will also be interested in college standards, for he will want to select the college with the best reputation. Here the counselor needs well-developed predictive devices, but since such devices are not universally available, he must depend on standardized test scores expressed in percentiles or IQ's, on grade placement, and on school marks such as A, B, or C converted to a grade-point aver-

age. Furthermore he must depend on scores that are not correlated with successful achievement in the various colleges. He knows reasonably well from the performance of his former students what percentiles on various tests and what grade-point averages are necessary for success in each of the colleges to which the majority of his students go.

Many counselors do well in helping students choose a college on the basis of such knowledge supported by their own judgment, and until sufficient research is done counselors will have to continue this practice. If, however, the counselor can find the time, he can make prediction tables for a few of the colleges where many of his students go.

In some States, prediction tables have been established for all colleges within the State. In Georgia, for example, prediction tables based on a standardized verbal scholastic aptitude test, a standardized mathematics test, and the high school grade-point average have been established for the 28 colleges in the State. A set of tables has also been established for each of these colleges based on the high school grade-point average alone. Both sets of tables have been published by the regents of the university system in a pamphlet, "Counselor's Guide to Georgia Colleges,"³ and a copy has been sent to every high school counselor in Georgia.

The pamphlet also includes a formula for converting the standardized test scores and the grade-point average into a single score. With the score for a particular student, the counselor and the student can use the prediction tables to learn how many chances out of a hundred the student will have of making an average of C, B, or A in any of the 28 colleges. If they use the grade-point average alone, they follow the same procedure but without using the conversion formula.

Paul Horst⁴ of the University of Washington has prepared differential prediction tables for the State of Washington. With the Washington tables a counselor can predict the degree of success a student may expect to have in any one of 32 courses in all colleges in the State. Horst uses the student's high school grade-point average for each of the six subjects of English, mathematics, natural science, social science, languages, and electives; age; sex; and the scores on seven brief standardized tests. By a combination of complex statistical techniques, Horst has developed a formula for converting the 15 scores into one

³ Linda B. Emory, Gretchen Franz, and John R. Hills, Athens, Regents of the University System of Georgia, Office of Testing and Guidance, December 1959.

⁴ Differential Prediction of Academic Success, Seattle, University of Washington, May 1959.

score which can be applied to each of the 32 different courses in the university or in the other colleges in the State. With this formula the counselor and the student can see how many chances out of a hundred the student has of making C or better in any of the courses in any of the institutions.

It isn't necessary for a counselor in the State of Washington to understand the statistical procedure Horst used in developing the tables to be able to use them. He can get the student's grade-point average in each of the six subjects, his scores on the seven brief tests, his age, and sex. He can then apply the simple formula and arrive at the number for the prediction. He and the student can do the rest.

Every high school counselor needs prediction tables for each college in his State. Perhaps one of his jobs is to make this need known to someone in his State university or State department of education.

Second, the effective counselor keeps up with many sources of information on scholarships and other financial aids and helps needy students search for a scholarship or other aid to meet their needs. From my own experience I am convinced that counselors will find few efforts more rewarding than encouraging needy students to make many applications for scholarships. And many students do need encouragement. Thistlethwaite, in a study of high aptitude students who were near winners in the National Merit Scholarship program, found that "at least part of the Nation's talent loss may be attributed to the lack of student initiative, inadequate counseling, or both, since many of these students do not apply for scholarships or apply to only one or two institutions."⁵

As a rule loans are unpopular with students, for many do not like to begin their working careers in debt. Perhaps one of the greatest services a counselor can give in the next decade is to point out to able students that it may be just as wise to borrow money at low interest rates to pay for a college education as it is to borrow at higher interest rates to pay for a home. Title II of NDEA—Loans to Students in Institutions of Higher Education—makes many loans available in nearly all colleges. There are some indications that NDEA has stimulated colleges and universities to make more of their institutional funds available for student loans and has changed students' attitudes toward borrowing.

A good many students are able to attend the institution of their choice if they get part-time jobs. Here again the

⁵ Donald L. Thistlethwaite, "Counseling High Aptitude Students on Scholarship Opportunities," *The Personnel and Guidance Journal*, vol. XXXVII, No. 8 (April 1959), p. 54.

counselor can help them. He should, however, guide or assist them only when it is necessary, not get jobs for them.

If it is true that every graduate of a high school with a good guidance program has realistic plans for his next step, the counselor can leave the student's graduation activities to class officers, registrar, and administrators and concern himself with the graduate's entering the college of his choice and making progress in it. He can be helpful to the graduate in many ways, for example by getting in touch with various colleges, taking groups of students to visit the colleges they have selected, writing letters, and making telephone calls. His objective may be to help a student obtain a scholarship, a part-time job, or a loan; to give the college counselor pertinent information about a particular student who will need assistance if he is to make satisfactory progress; to investigate the social life of the college a shy student has selected; or to arrange with college officials to get information about students' progress in college.

Let me emphasize that the work of the counselor is to assist other staff members in identifying able students, to assist in motivating those needing motivation, to assist students in making and executing their plans. Let me also emphasize that each student should make his own arrangements as far as possible and that the counselor should assist only when the student can go no further alone.

Checklist

For counselors who might wish to review their programs I am including a checklist of activities under these heads—*Identification, Motivation, and Assistance*. Since some of the activities are overlapping, I have listed them according to the controlling purpose of the activity described.

Identification

I have identified all able students in grades 9, 10, 11, and 12 and begun identifying able students in grades 7 and 8.

Motivation

I have made an effort to motivate able students by—

- Checking schedules of those in 9th and 10th grades to find out whether they are taking a college preparatory curriculum.

- Talking with those not taking a college preparatory course about changing courses.

- Examining students' plans to learn who plan to go to college.

- Providing published information—books, magazine articles, pamphlets—written to motivate able students to go to college.

I have made an effort to motivate each able student not bound for college by—

- Supplying him with special materials.

- Asking the cooperation of at least one of his parents.

- Counseling him on the advantages of college education as preparation for a career.

- Arranging for him to visit various colleges.

- Encouraging him to complete his secondary education.

- Encouraging him to take the courses required for college admission.

- Giving his name to teachers whose cooperation I have asked.

Assistance

I have assisted students who have not selected a college by—

- Supplying directories, college catalogs, and other materials to help them select suitable colleges.

- Arranging for them to visit colleges and to confer with college officials.

- Arranging for "college day," or other occasions for bringing college representatives to the school.

- Interviewing the students individually.

- Providing information on scholarships, loans, and job opportunities.

I have assisted students who have chosen a college by—

- Getting general information from the college.

- Sending the college information about them.

- Telling them things they should know about the college they have chosen and problems they may have.
- Helping them select freshman courses suited to their interests and ability.

- Encouraging them to take courses required for admission to the college of their choice.

- Reviewing their plans and trying to strengthen weak ones.

- Asking college officials to give special assistance to certain students.

- Asking college officials for progress reports on students during their freshman year.

- Talking with students whose choice I consider unrealistic on the basis of their cumulative records and the catalogs of the colleges they have chosen.
- Helping them arrange for scholarships, loans, or part-time jobs.

- Encouraging them to use initiative in making their plans.

- Arranging for them to take the courses they need to enter the chosen colleges.

Exceptional children in local public schools

THE DATA reported in this article are based on the 1958 Office of Education survey of special education, covering all school systems in cities with 2,500 population and over and in towns of less than 2,500 if the State department of education reported that they maintained programs. About 97 percent of the local school systems covered responded to the questionnaire.

In addition to this article the Office is publishing two reports based on the survey. The first—Exceptional Children and Youth: Special Education Enrollments in Local School Systems (a chart book, now in press)—shows the geographical growth of special education between 1948 and 1958 and the nationwide distribution of enrollments by grade levels and by types of special education program offered. The second—Statistics of Special Education for Exceptional Children, 1958—is a more detailed report of survey findings, including data from local public schools and from public and private residential schools. School Life's Checklist of Office of Education publications will

include both reports when they are available, several months from now.

IN THIS ERA of ever-expanding child population it is not surprising to discover that the number of exceptional children enrolled in special education programs in our local public school systems has more than doubled—from about 378,000 in 1948 to nearly 861,000 in 1958.

These figures represent a rate of growth three times that of local public elementary and secondary school enrollments during the same period—not because there is a disproportionate increase in the number of exceptional children but because the public schools are increasingly accepting responsibility for the education of these children.

Another indication of this increasing public acceptance of responsibility is the dramatic rise in the number of local public schools offering special programs. These programs varied from school system to school system; some schools offered programs for only one type of exceptional child, such as the mentally retarded; others offered programs for all types.

A quarter of a century ago only about 750 school systems reported enrollments in special education programs. By 1948 the number had doubled. Now it has reached a total of nearly 3,700 (approximately 5 times the figure in 1935.) This increase has occurred despite a reduction in the total number of school districts, from about 108,000 in 1942 to about 50,000 in 1956-57.

Still a third indication of public interest has appeared in the last quarter century: Schools are providing special education over a wider grade range than ever before. For example, we have known for some time that many school systems are organizing nursery schools and kindergartens for exceptional children, but until the 1958 survey we did not have nationwide statistics on the extent of such facilities.

It may be that, all together, as many as 1 1/4 million children and young people are receiving special education. (This figure is based on known enrollments in public day school classes and in public and private residential schools and on estimated enrollments in private day schools.) Specialists in the field believe, however, that these 1 1/4 million children represent only one-fourth of those who need special education. Despite the remarkable growth in number of programs and in number of children enrolled, we still have a long way to go. Furthermore, the growth of special education has not been at the same rate for all types of exceptional children. The reasons for this uneven development are undoubtedly complex. But surely such reasons would include the variation from region to region in public awareness of the need, the number of children needing such education, the financial condition of the school district, and the availability of trained teachers.

Between 1948 and 1958 the most striking gains were made in the en-

Dr. Mackie, Chief of the Office's Section on Exceptional Children and Youth, is well-known for her work as director of the nationwide study, in the 1950's, on the qualifications and preparation of teachers of exceptional children, from which about a dozen publications have resulted. Mrs. Robbins is research assistant in the section.

rollment of the blind, the speech impaired, the mentally gifted, and the mentally retarded; less striking but substantial were the gains made by the deaf and the socially maladjusted

Exceptional children in special education programs in local public school systems

Type of exceptionality ¹	Number of pupils
Blind.....	2,742
Partially seeing.....	8,266
Deaf.....	6,162
Hard of hearing.....	13,037
Speech impaired.....	474,643
Crippled.....	28,355
Special health problems.....	21,714
Socially and emotionally maladjusted.....	27,447
Gifted.....	52,005
Mentally retarded (upper range).....	196,785
Mentally retarded (middle range).....	16,617
Other ²	13,041
Total.....	860,814

¹ The following definitions were used in reporting enrollment:

Blind, as defined in the State reporting.

Speech impaired, includes only those receiving special corrective work, not those in general speech improvement classes.

Crippled, includes cerebral palsied.

Special health problems, includes those with tuberculosis, epilepsy, or cardiac or other below par conditions.

Socially and emotionally maladjusted, includes delinquents.

Mentally gifted, includes only those in special schools or classes, not those in high sections of regular grades.

Mentally retarded, includes those in upper range with IQ's between 50 and 75 and those in middle range with IQ's between 25 and 50.

² Includes pupils in combined categories of exceptionality: blind and partially seeing, 119; deaf and hard of hearing, 1,993; speech impaired and hard of hearing, 4,493; crippled and special health problems, 4,686; special health problems and socially maladjusted, 22; upper and middle range mentally retarded, 1,403. An additional 325 were reported as multihandicapped.

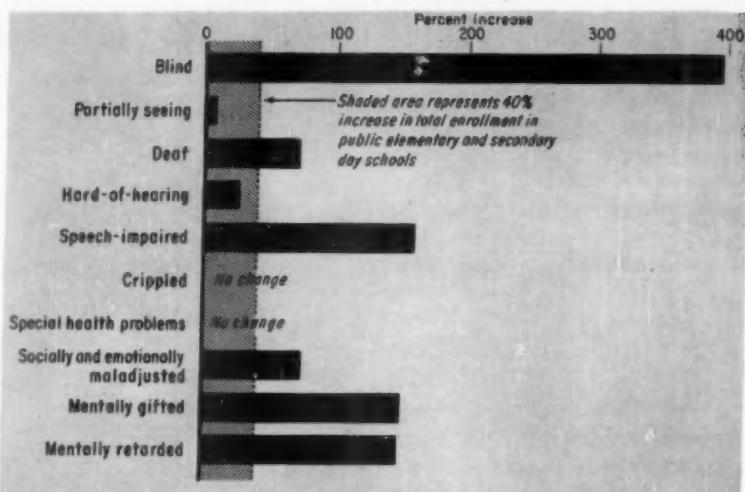


Chart 1. Change in special education enrollments in local public school systems, 1948 to 1958.

and emotionally disturbed. There are some indications that the country as a whole lagged in providing for children handicapped by a partial loss of vision or hearing.

Although our statistics show virtually no change in enrollment of children with crippling conditions and those with special health prob-

lems, such figures are difficult to evaluate. We know, through medical records and other reports, that there have been changes in the number of children with some of the disabilities that cause crippling, for example the number of poliomyelitis cases has decreased. But this decrease may be counterbalanced by

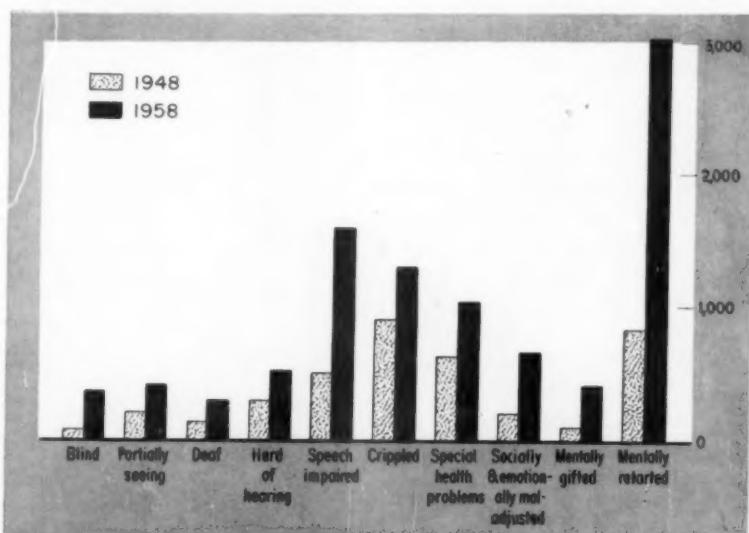


Chart 2. Number of local public school systems reporting enrollments in each area of exceptionality, 1948 and 1958.

the enrollment of cerebral palsied children, who have not until recently had opportunities for special education. We need much more extensive analysis of the nature of the handicaps of the children considered under these two categories before we can fairly evaluate progress.

We realize, however, that the needs of these children are complex, that such analysis will be difficult, for it must be based not only on knowledge of the many types of disabilities that bring on crippling or health problems but also on the various kinds of programs in which these children can be educated.

Turning now to an analysis of the increase in number of school systems reporting programs, we find the greatest gains were made by the gifted and the blind, the two groups served by the fewest systems in 1948, and the lowest gains by the crippled, the group served by the largest number of systems in 1948.

Far more opportunities are available for the mentally retarded in local public school systems than for any other type of exceptional children. This undoubtedly reflects the aroused public interest in this group and the public belief that, with good basic education, most mentally retarded children may look forward to useful lives. All of us find such progress encouraging, but we should bear in mind that probably just as many children with speech and hearing disabilities and with social and emotional problems would also have a brighter future if schools provided as well for them. In making comparisons between one type and another, we should remember that the size of the problem varies considerably. For example, there are so few blind children in some districts that school systems join together to provide special programs for them.

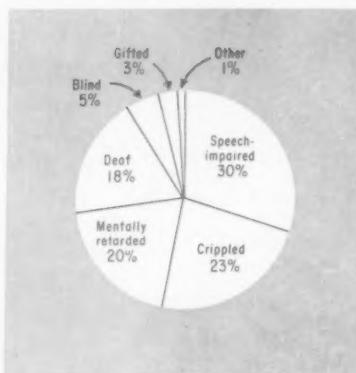


Chart 3. Nursery and kindergarten enrollments, by types of exceptionality.

We referred earlier to the developing programs of nursery school and kindergarten education for exceptional children. In 1958 more than 200 public school systems were providing for more than 5,000 children of one or more types in nursery schools and kindergartens. So far children with speech impairments have been the chief beneficiaries, but fairly large numbers of the mentally retarded, the crippled, and the deaf

are also benefiting. The Office plans to continue collecting information on children in this age group for there is much reason to believe that more and more schools are recognizing that much preventive as well as corrective work can be done in the early years of a child's life.

The growing awareness of the benefits of education suitable to the handicapped or gifted child—and to his family, his community, and his society—are reflected in the statistics we report here, all of them showing progress. Still much remains to be done. Perhaps the chief obstacle to improving and expanding programs is the shortage of qualified teachers. As that obstacle is overcome, we believe that the progress made in the past decade will gather momentum. In 1948 one in ten children was enrolled in a special education program; in 1958, one in four was enrolled. None of us, neither the public nor the schools, will be satisfied until the number of children served equals the number in need of service.



School goes to the child in the hospital.

Sources of income for higher education

WITH a great expansion of higher education facing us, many persons are asking, "Where will the money come from?"

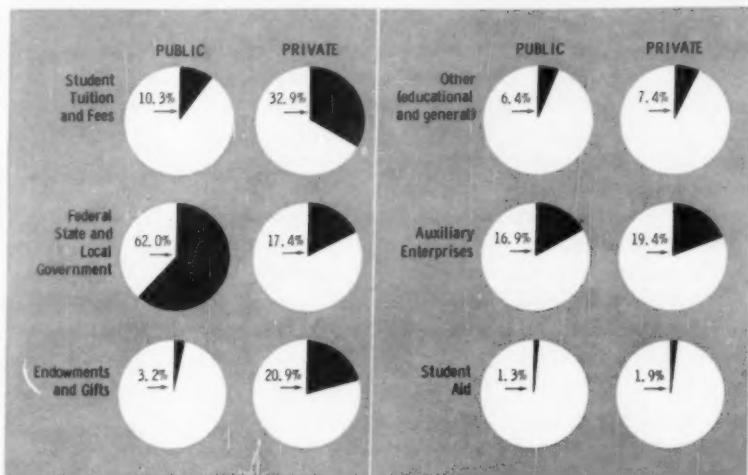
In 1957-58, the latest year for which complete figures are available, approximately 20 percent of the total current funds of public and private institutions came from tuition and fees from students—10 percent in public institutions but about 33 percent in private institutions.

Governments—Federal, State, and local—supplied over 42 percent of the current funds for all institutions. For public institutions, governments supplied under 62 percent; for private institutions, just over 17 percent.

Endowments and gifts provided about 7 percent in all institutions, whether public or private. There was also not much difference in the proportions from auxiliary enterprises, such as dormitories, dining halls, book stores, and student hospitals, which supplied about 17 percent, or from student aid sources, which supplied under 2 percent; but private institutions had a slightly greater proportion of income from both than the public institutions had.

For further information on income and expenditures for current funds and plant funds for 4-year institutions and junior colleges, consult Advance Data: Publicly and Privately Controlled Institutions, and 4-Year Institutions and Junior Colleges, September 1960 (OE-52001).

Emery M. Foster, Chief
Research Studies and Survey Section



In the chart above and the table below: The sources of current-fund income of higher educational institutions, public and private, 1957-58¹

Source	Public and private institutions	Public institutions	Private institutions
Educational and general income:			
Students tuition and fees.....	20.1	10.3	32.9
Federal Government.....	15.2	14.8	15.8
State governments.....	24.7	42.5	1.4
Local governments.....	2.8	4.7	0.2
Endowment earnings.....	3.9	0.6	8.2
Private gifts and grants.....	7.0	2.6	12.7
Related activities.....	4.3	4.1	4.5
Sales and services.....	1.0	1.2	0.8
Other sources.....	1.5	1.1	2.1
Total.....	80.5	81.8	78.7
Auxiliary enterprises income.....	18.0	16.9	19.4
Student aid income.....	1.5	1.3	1.9
Total current-fund income.....	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ For public and private institutions together, the current-fund income was \$4,675,513,000. For public institutions alone it was \$2,656,401,000; for private, \$2,019,112,000.

Education for office occupations

THE GROWING IMPORTANCE of office workers is one of the facets of tomorrow's complex vocational structure. The secretary, the bookkeeper, the business-machine operator are as essential to the business manager as the foreman is; as essential to the school administrator as the teacher is; as essential to the scientist as the technician is.

By 1970, according to the Department of Labor, we will need 27 percent more office workers than we have today. Some of these workers will be young people just out of school; some will be older workers taking on new kinds of jobs. Both will need special preparation and additional training to meet the requirements for efficient office work.

The growing importance of office work, and of education for it, received recognition from the Office of Education last December, when a specialist for office education was appointed in the Division of Vocational Education. A few months later, the Division of Vocational Education called a meeting of specialists in office education. Among the 20 men and women who came together for 5 days of sessions, May 9-13, were State and city supervisors, high school teachers, high school coordinators, teacher-trainers, and members of professional associations, all recommended by professional business education associations.

The conference's first objective was to define office education. The definition it developed says that office education is a program which prepares for office careers. This program, a part of business education, prepares high-school, post-high-school, and adult students in public and

private schools for all levels of office employment. What the student learns under this program is vocationally oriented to help him reach his individual career objective.

The conference also developed "Guides for Action," a statement for the Office of Education to consider as it decides on the scope of its new program, and for State and local authorities to consider as they set up office education programs or evaluate those they have.

The conferees agreed that the function of office education is to provide vocational training in office work through initial, refresher, or upgrading courses in the schools of the Nation, and that the content of the program should include general education, basic business education, and specialized career courses.

Then the group moved on to one of its major reasons for meeting—to recommend to the Office of Education what it could do to promote office education. The recommendations include requests that the Office maintain—

Active and close contact with other Office staff members to insure that they understand office education.

Continuous liaison with office education programs in other Federal agencies.

Active and continuous contact with office education programs in the several States.

Active and continuous contact with associations whose interests are related to education and employment of office personnel.

Active and continuous contact with institutions that train teachers for business (office) education.

Though the recommendations made by the conference do not necessarily reflect the official position of the Office of Education, they no doubt will play a prominent part in helping the Office plan its office education activity.

After discussing what the Office of Education could do to help office education programs, the conference considered significant problems of office education. "Guides for Action," which will be published later this year, contains the suggestions of the conference. Among the suggestions are these:

State and local agencies should increase their leadership by giving more consultive services in all phases of business education, including office education.



Dr. Blackstone, the Office of Education's recently appointed specialist in office education, comes to his post from an assignment in Iran, for which country he established a complete business education program. In the United States his career in business education includes heading a university department and teaching in both high school and junior college.

Program planners should identify the areas common to all vocational fields and should encourage cooperation between the office education program and other vocational education programs.

Students should complete their vocational preparation as close as possible to the time they are to use it, and the quality of their preparation should be measured by their accomplishments, their behavior, and their occupational intelligence and capacity.

Physical facilities should be carefully planned and equipment appropriate to the need should be provided, efficiently used, and adequately maintained.

Office education, as part of the total educational program, should share in the academic, vocational, and personal-social guidance program.

Post-high-school and adult-education programs suitable in method and content to meet the objectives and needs of the participants should be encouraged.

Lines of communication with the whole community should be established to develop greater understanding of and interest in office education programs.

Consultive groups representing the areas in which the students are likely to be employed should be organized.

Assignments and activities should include only those which have educational value and are part of a sequence of planned learning experiences.

Curricular material must be constantly revised and reorganized in the light of research findings.

The office education program should not only provide all its students with vocational competence but



Automated equipment in the modern office calls for special skills.

prepare qualified students for the possibility of going to college.

Teachers of office education should have a broad background, including professional education, general education, occupational experience and proficiency, and knowledge of guidance techniques.

Since office education is "education for office careers," it has something to offer students of many levels of ability. For gifted students there are many rewarding office posi-



Leaders in office education work around the conference table in the Office of Education, May 1960, developing "Guides for Action."

tions in keeping with their special abilities, and many opportunities for advancement. For less gifted students there are satisfying opportunities in less complex jobs, even in jobs calling for rather simple skills.

Automation is bringing many changes to office work. Schools should prepare students to meet these changes; also, they should retrain and upgrade workers by teaching them the new techniques that the changes call for. Trying to visualize the changes that will take place and preparing students for them is one of education's greatest challenges.

Much high-quality research in office education is needed to assist with the further development and improvement of programs and in the development of methods for improving instruction to broaden the content. Certainly more effective office education programs can come only from knowledge of what is wanted and needed. Business can help by financing research, and in so doing not only make a big contribution to education but also create benefits for itself, in the form of more effectively trained office staff. State and local agencies, too, should join the research effort. Whoever does research, however, should bear in mind the fact that too much of the research done in office education does not use information already available or duplicates the work done by others.



Prospective teachers of courses in office education must themselves learn the skills they want to teach.

The courses our high schools are now offering are not adequate to meet the growing need for office workers. Our manpower shortage makes it essential that schools now offer programs for adults, too, to give them initial, refresher, or upgrading training for all levels of office activity. Cooperative education, in which the school and industry join hands, offers a possibility which office educators should explore. Changes should be made in the traditional organization of instruction and objectives so as to provide a logical, clear-cut program of instruction to meet the growing manpower needs of the Nation.

State supervision of office education can contribute much to the development of a satisfactory program. Support of this type, through the administration of a State-oriented program, can help provide the leadership, coordination, and encouragement the schools need if they are to make office education an increasingly vital part of the total education program.

Techniques for a revised program of instruction in office education can be provided through teacher education, in both preservice and inservice programs. Increased attention to techniques in the cooperative method seems desirable.

The future is almost unlimited for the office worker who is well trained and prepared for change. There is no doubt that many changes are needed in office education and that because educators and others concerned with office education are growing aware of the need, many changes will be made. The Office of Education is ready to serve office education wherever it can.



Working part time in a hospital under the school's cooperative program, this young man learns how to keep medical records.

ad Minutes

Briefly noted ...
for the busy School Administrator

Material for this department is prepared in the School Administration Branch, Division of State and Local School Systems, by H. D. Evans, Jr. Contributors are the specialists in the Branch—this month, Elmer C. Deering, Gene C. Fusco, John B. Murray, William B. Rich, and James P. Steffensen.

Accent on quality. For many years, the Council of Chief State School Officers has had an ever-increasing influence on the educational policies of State educational agencies. The Council's Study Commission, established in 1942, is its policy-forming agency. Through workshops and cooperative research, the Study Commission formulates guidelines for the improvement of State school systems. Those adopted by the Council are published as policy statements.

One of Council's most recent statements, *Responsibilities of State Departments of Education for Approval and Accreditation of Public Schools*, is the result of several years of study of the basic policies and principles which State departments of education should follow in developing and administering programs for appraising the quality of the public schools. In his article in last month's *School Life*, William B. Rich quotes definitions of *approval* and *accreditation* from the statement.

Although the policy statement was published just this year, the Iowa State Department of Education is already considering adopting an accreditation program based on its suggestions. The proposed voluntary accreditation program now being discussed in Iowa would set up criteria and a method of

distinguishing quality education programs from those that merely meet minimum standards required for approval of the local school system.

In this proposed program any local school system meeting all approval standards would automatically be eligible to apply for accreditation status. The school system would do this by filing with the Iowa Department of Education a statement of its own self-appraisal based on officially adopted criteria. Then, using the same criteria, a team of specialists from the department would evaluate the school system and prepare a report and make a recommendation for or against accreditation.

The local school system would adopt long-range plans to meet or, if possible, to exceed the recommendations by the visiting team. After official action by the State board of instruction, the accreditation status would be announced and published in the department's annual education directory.

Under the proposed program, the department would give all the assistance possible, including consultive services, to help the local school system realize its long-range goals. The local school's annual reports would include information on its progress in improving the quality of its educational program.

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Seattle citizens committee. After completing a 7-month study of the finances and services of the Seattle school system, a citizens advisory committee made a report to the school board that included recommendations in 20 categories. The 26-member committee,

composed of an 8-man steering committee and 4 subcommittees, studied curriculum content, effective teaching, administration, and finances. Members of the committee served as interested citizens or parents and not as representatives of organizations.

One of the recommendations on services was that the child's classroom training begin at the age of five, that the term "kindergarten" be discarded, and that this training be absorbed into the regular school years organized as a 4-year ungraded primary unit.

In its recommendation on finances, the committee proposed that the State constitution be revised to permit special school levies beyond the 14-mill maximum to be validated for a 2-year period rather than annually.

The additional costs required to carry out some of the recommendations on improving the quality of education, the committee said, would amount to less than one-third of the budget increase that will be required by 1965 just to maintain the present program of school services.

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Voter attitudes. Registered voters in school bond elections get their opinions and attitudes about education through participating in school affairs. How widespread is participation? Depressingly low, according to a study, "Voters and their Schools," made by the Institute for Communication Research of Stanford University.

The study, based on interviews conducted in 100 selected communities, found that 50 percent of the voters did not participate at all. About 33 percent of the voters participated directly, both in school activities and in talking over school matters with family, friends, and neighbors. Eleven percent appeared interested and communicative in school matters but did not participate directly; and the remaining 6 percent, though active, in everyday person-to-

person conversation did not show much interest in the schools.

The report emphasizes that schools should give more attention to teaching children the nature and purpose of the public schools. Ultimately, the challenge is to the voters if school-community relations are to be improved significantly. "The schools can help," says the report, "but it is the voters who must finally accept responsibility, who must meet the challenge of commitment."

Financial support for the 3-year study on the role of communication in achieving better school and community understanding was underwritten by the Office of Education through its Cooperative Research Program.

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Discipline on school busses. Some boards of education are finding it necessary to pay not only a driver of a school bus, but a second person to ride along to maintain discipline.

Earl C. Welshimer says in the *Illinois School Board Journal* that in some communities the difficulty might be that schoolmen do not sell the transportation program for what it is—an auxiliary service to the families to transport their children to school to get an education. He asks whether school districts are doing everything possible to teach children to accept their share of responsibility for this service.

Parents and patrons in some communities may not know what their responsibilities are in connection with the transportation program. Drivers may not be certain just where their duties begin and end.

To remedy this situation, at least one board of education is finding it good policy to define, and put in writing, each person's responsibility in the transportation program. The Baltimore County Board of Education recently published a handbook that tells drivers, pupils, parents, administrative staff, and

all others involved, exactly what is expected of them in connection with the school transportation program.

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School administration doctorates. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education has recently released a comprehensive study of 92 institutions and their 3,000 graduates who received, in 1956-58, doctorates in education, in 59 fields of concentration. Here are some of the study's findings about graduates in school administration.

Nearly one-fourth (673) of all doctorates granted in education at 67 institutions were in school administration.

In the next few years the proportion of doctorates in school administration is likely to decline. One reason: more new programs are being planned in other fields of education. For example, in contrast to 17 new programs being

planned for school administration, 29 are planned for guidance in counseling and 27 in elementary education.

The study sees no cause for alarm in this decline since school administration will remain, until 1970 at least, the largest field of concentration in education.

The study notes the need for institutions to follow up their school administration graduates to see how many are engaged in the work for which they were prepared. At the time of the survey, one-half of the 1956-58 graduates had administrative jobs, about one-third were teaching, and the rest were in personnel or instructional services. A checkup by their places of employment showed that 52 percent were employed in public school districts, 38 percent in higher education, 7 percent in service organizations, 1 percent in business or industry, and 2 percent in "other" or "not reported."

Average net interest cost of new bond sales for public school purposes, August 1959-August 1960, by Moody ratings

This summary is based on sales reported by the Investment Bankers' Association. About 75 percent of the sales had a Moody rating.

Period	AAA	AA	A	BAA	BA	All rated bonds
1959-60						
August.....	3.71	3.65	3.69	4.26	4.08	3.81
September.....	3.88	3.94	4.00	4.42	4.75	4.07
October.....	3.03	3.38	3.75	4.21	3.85
November.....	3.06	3.43	3.79	4.10	4.75	3.71
December.....	3.80	3.91	4.22	3.94
January.....	3.29	3.59	4.03	4.39	4.71	3.80
February.....	3.60	3.71	4.09	4.48	4.48	3.86
March.....	4.02	3.40	3.64	4.19	4.58	3.79
April.....	3.18	3.63	3.79	4.24	4.50	3.83
May.....	3.24	3.31	3.77	4.13	4.51	3.80
June.....	3.02	3.66	3.62	4.12	4.30	3.73
1959-60 average.....						
July.....	3.26	3.63	3.78	4.21	4.55	3.84
1960-61						
July.....	3.08	3.37	3.72	4.00	4.47	3.78
August.....	2.81	3.01	3.47	3.73	4.23	3.47

¹ All are revenue bonds of school building authorities which are usually at least 0.5 percent higher than tax obligation bonds.

Laws for education—86th Congress, Second Session

WHEN the 86th Congress adjourned on September 1, 1960, it had enacted about 75 laws of some implication for education. Those enacted during the first session have already been reported in *School Life*, in the November 1959 issue. The ten summarized here are from the second session.

Public Law 86-446, approved Apr. 29, 1960, further increases the authorization for expenditures from the funds of the Commodity Credit Corporation for the Special Milk Program (which provides fluid milk for children in nonprofit elementary and secondary schools, nursery schools, child-care centers, settlement houses, summer camps, and similar nonprofit institutions for the care and training of children). Funds for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1960, were increased by \$11 million, to a total of \$95 million.

Public Law 86-449 (Civil Rights Act of 1960), approved May 6, 1960, authorizes the Commissioner of Education to make provisions for the education of children of members of the Armed Forces on active duty, whether or not such children reside on Federal property, when the schools attended by such children have been closed by official action.

Public Law 86-532, approved June 29, 1960, appropriates \$110 million for the School Lunch Program and directs that an additional \$45 million be transferred from funds authorized under section 32 of Public Law 320 (enacted in 1935), making a total of \$155 million available for the program—an increase of \$1.5 million. The additional funds are for the purchase of agricultural commodities.

Public Law 86-624 (Hawaiian Omnibus Act), approved July 12, 1960, includes Hawaii in all Federal educational programs as a State and authorizes appropriation of \$6 million for the Hawaiian land-grant institution.

Public Law 86-626, approved July 12, 1960, includes appropriation of \$30 million to the National Science Foundation for tuition, grants, and allowances for train-

ing teachers of secondary school mathematics and science.

Public Law 86-679, approved Aug. 31, 1960, extends for 5 years the Library Services Act, which authorizes Federal grants to the States for extending and improving library services in rural areas.

Public Law 86-703, approved Sept. 2, 1960, makes appropriations for the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare for fiscal year 1961 (July 1, 1960, to June 30, 1961). In addition, *Public Law 86-722*, approved Sept. 8, 1960, makes supplemental appropriations which include additional funds for the National Defense Education Act of 1958 and for aid to land-grant colleges. The most significant item in these laws is an increase of nearly \$28 million for NDEA programs, bringing the total appropriation close to the maximum authorizations of the act and within \$1,420,000 of the 1961 budget estimate submitted by the Department. The table which follows shows the 1961 appropriations for each NDEA program.

Program	Appropriations (in thousands)	
	1960	1961
Student loans	\$40,700	\$58,430
Science, mathematics, and foreign language instruction	64,000	57,750
Graduate fellowships	12,800	20,750
Guidance, counseling, and testing	20,480	21,500
Language development and area and language studies	10,220	13,800
Educational media research	3,000	4,700
Area vocational programs	7,000	9,000
State statistical services	1,500	1,550
Total	159,700	187,480

¹ Of this amount, \$6.5 million is for institutes for counseling personnel.

Other appropriation items the law includes are these:

Vocational education—\$40,872,068.

Land-grant colleges—\$5,051,500.

State library services—\$7,500,000.

Maintenance and operation of schools in federally affected areas—\$187,310,000.

School construction in federally affected areas—\$63,392,000.

MR. RADCLIFFE is legislative reports officer, Legislative and Program Development Branch, Office of Education.

Fellowships in education of the mentally retarded—
\$1,000,000.

Salaries and expenses, Office of Education—
\$13,400,000.

Public Law 86-756, approved Sept. 14, 1960, authorizes the Commodity Credit Corporation to donate dairy

products and other agricultural commodities to schools for use in home economics courses.

Public Law 86-779, approved Sept. 14, 1960, amends the Internal Revenue Code of 1954 to allow a tax deduction for taxpayers who provide maintenance in the United States for certain foreign students.

Foreign languages in public secondary schools

FOR the third time in recent years, a systematic survey is being made of the status of foreign language instruction in the U. S. A. It is being made by the Modern Language Association, under a contract with the Office of Education, with funds made available through the National Defense Education Act (the earlier surveys were made in 1948-49 and 1954-55, by the Office and MLA, respectively).

The current survey consists in fact of a whole series of surveys. The first, on offerings and enrollments in public secondary schools in the fall of 1958, has already been completed; the final report on it, made by Wesley Childers, director of MLA research, is the source of the figures and facts given here. Other surveys in the series are looking into the school year 1959-60, not only in the public secondary schools but in private ones, and in elementary schools and colleges and universities.

IN THE FALL of 1958 one out of every six boys and girls in U.S. public secondary schools was studying a modern foreign language, either French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish, or one of the more rarely offered languages, such as modern Greek. This means that 1,300,882 of the 7,906,679 high school students in 50 States and the District of Columbia were enrolled in at least one language course. Add to that the number studying a classical language—ancient Greek or Latin—and the total enrollment rises to 1,920,722 and the ratio to 1 out of every 4 pupils. As Dr. Childers points out in his report, however, his count is a count of enrollments, not of individual students. Any students enrolled in more than one language would therefore have been counted twice, making the number of individual students somewhat smaller than the figures given here.

Between 1954 and 1958 the percentage of U.S. high schools offering foreign language instruction increased from 54.0 percent to 61.6 percent. Enrollment increased by 3.2 percent: 41 States and the District of Columbia showed a percentage increase, 2 States remained the same, and 5 showed slight losses. Kansas, Vermont, Delaware, Oregon, and Idaho made the greatest gains.

In 1958 the States varied widely in the percentage of their high school population studying a foreign language:

- 12 States and the District of Columbia,
more than 30 percent
- 12 States, from 20 to 29 percent
- 19 States, from 10 to 19 percent
- 5 States, from 5 to 9 percent
- 2 States, less than 5 percent.

Massachusetts ranked first with 46.4 percent and New York second with 45.3 percent.

The most widely offered languages were Spanish, Latin, and French: each one was offered by some high schools in every one of the 50 States and the District of Columbia. German was offered by at least one school in all but 3 States, Italian by at least one school in 13 States, and Russian by some schools in 25 States and the District of Columbia. The percentage of students who had enrolled in each of the modern foreign languages was as follows:

Modern foreign language	Percentage of all high school students	Percentage of all students enrolled in a foreign language
SPANISH-----	8.8	36.0
LATIN-----	7.8	32.2
FRENCH-----	6.1	25.0
GERMAN-----	1.2	5.1
ITALIAN-----	.3	1.2
RUSSIAN-----	.05	.2
OTHER-----	.07	.3

(See page 26 for continuation of text)

Enrollments in foreign languages, public high schools (grades 9-12), fall 1958

State	Total high school enrollment grades 9-12	Total foreign language enrollment ¹	Spanish	Latin	French	German	Italian	Russian
Alabama	177,786	12,837	3,509	6,113	3,215	0	0	0
Alaska	6,326	1,248	627	296	191	134	0	0
Arizona	48,748	14,582	10,995	2,349	878	335	0	0
Arkansas	98,997	4,825	1,598	2,144	1,060	23	0	0
California ²	686,528	235,925	146,890	34,759	40,099	11,758	746	798
Colorado	78,909	20,968	10,522	7,207	2,337	738	25	139
Connecticut	92,131	37,169	7,995	14,107	12,339	1,923	1,388	55
Delaware	17,562	6,668	1,752	2,793	1,856	321	0	16
District of Columbia	19,049	6,035	1,787	1,808	1,968	422	0	50
Florida	195,354	40,120	21,638	14,590	3,498	325	0	69
Georgia	184,849	32,848	7,917	11,910	12,990	31	0	0
Hawaii	30,934	3,917	1,221	1,482	1,118	0	0	0
Idaho	35,859	7,057	3,317	2,852	778	110	0	0
Illinois ³	403,547	110,275	40,860	37,238	19,296	11,741	788	0
Indiana	233,426	41,372	11,487	22,852	5,263	1,630	0	27
Iowa	136,704	15,554	4,400	8,402	2,040	712	0	0
Kansas	108,418	16,396	6,496	7,204	2,248	448	0	0
Kentucky	135,031	14,800	3,447	7,509	3,239	605	0	0
Louisiana	147,320	15,347	4,320	4,654	6,373	0	0	0
Maine	40,736	14,052	487	5,485	8,031	49	0	0
Maryland	124,502	36,797	9,133	11,583	15,429	652	0	0
Massachusetts	199,366	92,502	11,974	31,908	43,304	2,804	1,786	68
Michigan	342,531	68,277	20,966	29,482	15,310	1,985	23	511
Minnesota	174,815	21,150	5,977	8,300	3,486	3,146	0	39
Mississippi	106,000	3,394	1,251	1,279	841	23	0	0
Missouri	194,850	21,762	8,569	8,009	4,488	586	84	26
Montana	35,255	5,528	1,724	2,252	1,016	536	0	0
Nebraska	64,406	8,715	3,293	3,522	1,189	669	0	42
Nevada	12,174	3,534	2,136	670	641	44	43	0
New Hampshire	22,436	8,840	618	3,421	4,734	67	0	0
New Jersey	242,476	105,990	38,317	26,640	27,713	8,862	4,169	204
New Mexico	33,906	11,469	8,181	2,291	624	249	0	124
New York	576,694	261,258	92,041	50,794	88,339	14,985	10,630	289
North Carolina	256,863	55,705	9,036	15,369	31,153	147	0	0
North Dakota	33,219	2,761	500	1,560	392	309	0	0
Ohio	422,480	100,094	25,456	50,810	18,832	4,783	0	125
Oklahoma	137,027	13,169	6,707	4,630	1,749	83	0	0
Oregon	94,865	18,126	6,543	6,256	3,554	1,466	0	307
Pennsylvania	495,477	158,150	40,341	68,314	35,348	12,411	1,086	506
Rhode Island	30,386	13,490	2,081	3,677	5,594	612	1,350	33
South Carolina	114,350	20,517	2,702	8,446	9,262	107	0	0
South Dakota	36,098	3,370	993	1,621	308	429	0	19
Tennessee	182,163	26,043	9,433	12,868	3,648	49	0	45
Texas	400,592	81,172	55,239	19,969	4,690	1,247	0	20
Utah	55,732	5,239	1,945	657	1,535	1,073	0	30
Vermont	15,849	5,910	265	2,788	2,818	39	0	0
Virginia	173,283	40,266	10,921	17,572	11,401	315	0	57
Washington ⁴	144,333	34,712	12,940	10,086	6,560	4,792	0	344
West Virginia	114,497	12,610	2,709	6,644	3,213	46	0	0
Wisconsin	173,623	24,885	6,962	9,278	3,968	4,550	15	112
Wyoming	18,357	3,992	1,715	1,842	392	43	0	0
United States	7,906,679	1,920,722	691,931	618,222	480,347	97,644	22,133	4,055

¹ Includes students enrolled in "other languages" not shown in table but given elsewhere in the article.

² Estimates based on enrollment in 1956 and 1959.

³ Estimates based on returns from schools representing 72 percent of high school population.

⁴ Estimates based on returns representing 50 percent of the high school population.

The languages included under "Other" in this tabulation enrolled 5,909 students in 13 States:

CHINESE, 21 students in California
CZECH, 7 in Texas
MODERN GREEK, 34 in Massachusetts and New York
HAWAIIAN, 96 in Hawaii
HEBREW, 4,255 in California, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, and Ohio
NORWEGIAN, 210 in Minnesota, New York, and Washington
POLISH, 499 in Connecticut, Illinois, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania
PORTUGUESE, 559 in Arizona, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island
SWEDISH, 228 in Connecticut, Illinois, and Minnesota

In addition, 227 students in 3 States—Indiana, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island—were studying ancient Greek.

Besides the 1.9 million foreign-language students in grades 9–12, there were 107,115 others in the 7th and 8th

grades (21 States reported enrollments in grade 7; 24 States and the District of Columbia, in grade 8):

Language	Number of States	Enrollment
FRENCH	20	44,825
GERMAN	11	3,178
HEBREW	1	881
ITALIAN	3	2,973
LATIN	14	14,558
RUSSIAN	2	82
SPANISH	19	37,509
OTHER	1	3,109

Both the Office of Education and the Modern Language Association expect the coming report on enrollments in 1959 to show the influence of the first full year of the National Defense Education Act, which in more than one way provides support for modern foreign languages. Reports already in from 20 States show increases in all but one; and some of the States show as great a gain from 1958 to 1959 as they did from 1954 to 1958.

Not by correspondence alone

IN the United States no reputable institution of higher education confers degrees solely on the basis of correspondence study. The lax chartering laws in some States permit the existence of correspondence schools whose practices amount virtually to the sale of diplomas or degrees, but such degrees have no academic value or recognition and tend to discredit the professional integrity of the holder.

The Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, strongly urges the public to beware of organizations advertising degrees by correspondence—

- in a comparatively short time,*
- through an easy course of study,*
- for which little or no previous education is required,*
- that may be completed in spare time,*
- at a very reasonable cost.*

These lines are from *Accredited Higher Institutions, 1960*, by Theresa Birch Wilkins, assistant specialist for institutional status, Division of Higher Education, Office of Education. This bulletin, eleventh in a series, lists all institutions accredited by a nationally recognized agency. Part I lists the nearly 1,400 colleges and universities accredited by the 6 nationally recognized regional accrediting agencies and associations; Part II, professional and technical schools or departments of schools that are accredited by or hold membership in at least one of 25 professional organizations or associations; Part III, institutions accredited and approved by State departments of education, State accrediting commissions, and State universities.

Copies of *Accredited Higher Institutions, 1960* (OE-50012) are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, at 60 cents each.

The UN in US Classrooms

EVERY 4 years member states of the United Nations report to the UN's Economic and Social Council on how they are making the United Nations and its work known to their citizens. With the cooperation of Federal, State, and local government officials, educators, and members of interested organizations, the Office of Education has prepared the latest United States report—for the period January 1, 1956, through December 31, 1959—and has now issued it as a bulletin, *Teaching About the United Nations*. The 96-page publication reports on the dissemination of information about the United Nations through the media of teacher training programs, school programs and syllabuses, textbooks and teaching materials, and out-of-school educational activities.

School Life presents the following quotations from the report as samples of what our schools, colleges, and educational organizations are doing to make the United Nations known to the American public.

In the relatively permissive American curricula for teacher preparation . . . most of the courses dealing with the United Nations are taken by student teachers either as part of their major subject requirements or as electives. . . . It is especially true for secondary school and college teachers in history, government, and other social sciences that work toward an advanced degree . . . will in almost every case include some course work dealing with the United Nations. . . . Many colleges include units on the United Nations in their general history or government courses, which are required for all students.

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The United Nations and its specialized agencies are introduced to elementary school children in connection with current events, special days, and holidays. Throughout the elementary social studies program, increasing attention is being given to learning about peoples of the world, and to encouraging friendly feelings toward them. The development of world understanding is coming about earlier in the grades, due to the impact of radio and television, increased travel, and other achievements of our time.

From the third grade on, children in public schools in the United States have available to them information concerning the United Nations. Although few textbooks intended for use previous to the fifth grade have extensive coverage of the United Nations, some stories in weekly newspapers for young children highlight United Nations news.

Some social studies books for fifth- and sixth-grade boys and girls include considerable information on the United Nations . . . [but] there appears to be an obvious lack of simple pamphlet material on the United Nations written specifically for pupils in the upper elementary grades. . . .

The secondary school program presents a number of opportunities for including a study of the United Nations and its various agencies. In courses in World History and the History of the United States, the story of the formation of the United Nations, the functions of the General Assembly, the Security Council and the Secretariat are described as part of the story.

As students move into the secondary school, more material dealing with the United Nations and the specialized agencies is available to them. A greater number as well as a greater variety of texts are at the disposal of older students. In addition, a more extensive treatment of the United Nations is found in junior and senior high school texts. This fact undoubtedly reflects the belief that the mature student is ready for a thorough and detailed consideration of current world problems.

♦ ♦ ♦

The development of teaching about the United Nations on the higher education level depends heavily on the efforts of individual professors and departments. The success is indicated in the trend toward more and more effort in this direction. Another influence is that of textbooks. Several standard texts exist, and they perhaps have as much influence as individual professors in shaping the courses and the course content in regard to the United Nations. . . .

♦ ♦ ♦

Participants in public school programs of adult education are almost always part-time students taking part voluntarily in an educational experience. Program offerings are determined most commonly on the basis of requests, surveys of interest, and past experiences of the administrators of the program.

♦ ♦ ♦

The great bulk of nonschool effort in teaching about the United Nations is made by organizations. A few of these are sponsored by the United States Government. A few more have State support, but the great majority are voluntary, nongovernmental organizations, formed and forwarded by public spirited citizens who wish to see the United Nations a permanent and powerful part of the thinking and planning of all citizens. . . .

Three national youth organizations, sponsored by U.S. Government agencies, carry on fairly extensive activities relating to the United Nations. These are the Future Homemakers of America, the Future Farmers of America, and the 4-H Clubs. . . .

Many nongovernmental organizations at the national level are active in disseminating information about the United Nations, and in encouraging teaching and discussion of its functions and roles. Of these, one of the largest and most active is the American Association for the United Nations (AAUN). . . .

♦ ♦ ♦

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